Capstone Project

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I. Definition

Project Overview

Determining the health of a business, or an entity within a business, is an important activity for a number of business reasons. For example, analysis of the strength of a business, particularly on the balance sheet, will be carried out as standard practice when merging with or acquiring a company. Other examples could include the onboarding of a new supplier or customer, or when carrying out an internal risk review of entities across a global business.

An example of the importance of effectively screening new suppliers relates to the recent collapse of one of the UK's largest construction services companies. When the company entered administration in 2018, it had £1.5bn of debt and owed up to 30,000 businesses approximately £800m in payments. Could the businesses who are owed money have been aware of the impending collapse of the company? which could either have been their supplier (e.g. playing a key part in their construction project) or customer (e.g. buying parts or people from them)?

Problem Statement

Businesses go bankrupt and enter administration regularly. The problem statement is: Given a limited set of financial data typically publicly available, can you predict if a business is in financial distress and likely to collapse?

It is likely that rule-based analysis is common, for example, placing a high risk factor when a business has been selling a high percentage of their fixed assets or if their cash flow is under a specified threshold.

The anticipated solution is a machine learning algorithm which can forecast whether a company is likely to go bankrupt or not, and if it is likely to go bankrupt, will it be in the near future or a number of years away.

Metrics

Since only 3-4% of companies in the training dataset go bankrupt, I will use F-score (formula below) to evaluate the models trained.

$$F_{\beta} = (1 + \beta^2) \cdot \frac{\textit{precision} \cdot \textit{recall}}{(\beta^2 \cdot \textit{precision}) + \textit{recall}}$$

The F-score, which considers both precision and recall, is required as an evaluation metric since the classification distribution is skewed.

II. Analysis

Data Exploration

A dataset related to companies in Poland going bankrupt was found on the UCI Machine Learning Repository

(https://archive.ics.uci.edu/ml/datasets/Polish+companies+bankruptcy+data), via Kaggle. The dataset contains five files, reflecting the financial metrics of companies from 2007-2013:

File	Data Contains	Labels
Year 1	2008 financial metrics for each company	
Year 2	2009 financial metrics for each company	
Year 3	2010 financial metrics for each company	0 = Company is not bankrupt in 2013 1 = Company is bankrupt by 2013
Year 4	2011 financial metrics for each company	
Year 5	2012 financial metrics for each company	

There are 64 features for each company (example below) but no information on the units of each or if any transformation has been carried out.

BJ	BK	BL	BM
Col62_(short-term_liabilities_*365)_div_sales	Col63_sales_div_short-term_liabilities	Col64_sales_div_fixed_assets	category
82.658	4.4158	7.4277	0
107.35	3.4	60.987	0
134.27	2.7185	5.2078	0
86.435	4.2228	5.5497	0
127.21	2.8692	7.898	0
88 444	4 1269	12 299	0

Companies are not identifiable and cannot be linked across the files, so we only know if the company goes bankrupt, relative to 2013. A restriction of this is that, for companies in the **Year** 1 file that go bankrupt, we don't know whether they went bankrupt in 2009, 2010, 2011 or 2012.

Since part of the problem statement is to predict whether a company is in imminent danger, I propose that this is a multiclass supervised learning classification problem, with three possible categories for each company: **Predicted to survive** (0), **predicted to go bankrupt within the next 2 years** (1) and **predicted to go bankrupt in 2-5 years** (2).

Target Class

After loading and joining the datasets together, it was noted that the majority of companies do not go bankrupt within the period of analysis (see chart below). Only 5% of companies go bankrupt, which means the dataset is very unbalanced and this is taken into consideration when selecting models and methods of performance scoring.

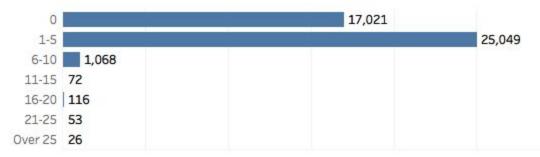




Features

There are 64 features for each company record and most of these are calculated values, such as *net profit divided by total assets* and *net profit divided by inventory*, all using financial metrics found on a company balance sheet. Data quality is an issue with the dataset. As shown in the chart below, a large number of the records have 1-5 features missing and some have over half of their features missing.

Number of missing features



When considering the bankruptcy status of the companies, it appears the companies that do go bankrupt have a higher number of missing features.

Average number of missing features by class

Class	
0 - No Bankruptcy	2.3%
1 - Bankrupt within next 2	3.1%
2 - Bankrupt in 2-5 years t	3.7%

Also, it is much more likely that three specific features are populated when the company does not go bankrupt. For example, for companies that do not go bankrupt, Feature 27 is populated 95% of the time, compared to 62% for companies that go bankrupt within 2-5 years.

% of rows with Feature 27 populated

% of rows with Feature 21 populated

Class	
0 - No Bankruptcy	95.04%
1 - Bankrupt within next 2 years	70.05%
2 - Bankrupt in 2-5 years time	62.44%

Class	
0 - No Bankruptcy	87.32%
1 - Bankrupt within next 2 years	77.08%
2 - Bankrupt in 2-5 years time	65.44%

Algorithms and Techniques

The following supervised learning algorithms were selected to test on the dataset. The algorithms can all be used to solve multi-class supervised learning problems.

- Random Forest: This is an ensemble learning method for classification, among
 other tasks. A random forest classifier builds a set of decision trees from
 randomly selected subsets of the training data, then aggregates the predictions
 from each tree to decide on the final predicted class.
- Decision Tree: A decision tree classifier carries out a number of iterations of dividing the training data by identifying differentiators. A decision tree will end when all data has been divided into classes, or it has met the maximum number of 'branches' set in the attributes.
- **KNN**: A KNN classifier groups training data into classes, and when making predictions the algorithm will classify a new object to its nearest neighbour; the class with the smallest distance from the object.
- **Logistic Regression**: Multinomial logistic regression is a type of regression applied to problems with more than two target classes.
- Gradient Boosting: This is a technique which uses a combination of weak prediction models. The method is similar to random forests, but gradient boosting

can use any algorithm and also uses a weighted average to calculate the final class, rather than a simple average.

I plan to test all of the algorithms listed above with the same training data and the performance will be measured using the F1 score.

Benchmark

Before running and testing the supervised learning algorithms on the training data, a benchmark was set using random predictions. This was run using sklearn's DummyClassifier algorithm and the result was an **F1 score of 0.34**.

III. Methodology

Data Preprocessing

Data loading & consolidation

The five source data files were loaded to dataframes. Since the source files only have two target classifications (0 = company survives, 1= company goes bankrupt) a new target class column was added to reflect the three target classifications needed for this analysis. The new target class is based on the source data file, which reflects the timeframe of the companies going bankrupt relative to 2013.

Source File	Target Class Logic
File 1 - 2008 financial metrics for each company	If Class = 1 then New Class = 2 (bankrupt in 2-5 years), Else 0 (company survives)
File 2 - 2009 financial metrics for each company	If Class = 1 then New Class = 2 (bankrupt in 2-5 years), Else 0 (company survives)
File 3 - 2010 financial metrics for each company	If Class = 1 then New Class = 2 (bankrupt in 2-5 years), Else 0 (company survives)
File 4 - 2011 financial metrics for each company	If Class = 1 then New Class = 1 (bankrupt within 2 years), Else 0 (company survives)
File 5 - 2012 financial metrics for each company	If Class = 1 then New Class = 1 (bankrupt within 2 years), Else 0 (company survives)

These five dataframes were then consolidated into a single dataframe:

Feature1	Feature2	Feature65	Target Class
1.9	0.7	4.3	0
0.9	1.1	7.0	0
1.0	0.8	5.0	1
2.5	3.9	3.9	2

Creating new columns

Based on my findings from the initial data exploration, a number of new columns were added to the dataset:

Column	Description
NaN Fields	Number of features that are blank for this company
Is Feature 6 Blank	
Is Feature 21 Blank	Flag for whether the specified feature is blank for the company (0,1)
Is Feature 27 Blank	

Setting NaN values to zero

Following the analysis of the effect of transforming blank values, they are set to zero in the training dataset.

Pre-processing tested but not implemented

A number of other refinements to the dataset were tested, including:

- Removing features with very high numbers of blank values;
- · Removing rows with blank values; and
- Setting blank values to the mean instead of zero.

These resulted in a performance decrease, so were not included in the final code.

Implementation

Following the loading and pre-processing of the data, the data was split into training and testing data, with an 80/20 split, using sklearn's train_test_split function.

Each model was then trained in a consistent way. The gradient boosting example is shown below.

Gradient boosting training code

```
# Gradient Boosting
from sklearn.ensemble import GradientBoostingClassifier

gbc = GradientBoostingClassifier(learning_rate=0.01,max_depth=8,n_estimators=50)

gbc.fit(X_train, y_train)

predictions_regr = gbc.predict(X_test)

print accuracy_score(predictions_regr, y_test)
print fl_score(predictions_regr, y_test, average='macro')
```

Measuring Performance

As noted in the Data Exploration section, the target classes are heavily skewed, therefore the F-score is used to evaluate the models.

For each iteration of model testing, sklearn's F1_score method was used to monitor performance change.

IV. Results

Model Evaluation and Validation

The F1 scores of the algorithms are summarised in the table below and show that the Gradient Boosting method produced the best predictions on the test data, with an F1 score of 0.509.

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Algorithm	
Gradient Booster	0.5090
Decision Tree	0.4490
KNN	0.4360
Logistic Regression	0.3390
Neural Network	0.3250
Random Forest	0.3250

Justification

Although the algorithm didn't perform as well as expected, it does perform better than the random selection and it also performs better than the Random Forest algorithm (which is also sometimes used as a benchmark).

When reflecting on the suggested use of the algorithm (to flag if a company, whether a supplier, customer, or other business relationship, is in danger of going bankrupt), this could be a good enough score to justify its use. In a real life situation, a prediction made by this algorithm wouldn't result in an automatic business decision, it would just likely start a process of reviewing company financials in more detail and perhaps speaking with the company to validate or disprove the prediction. If the human follow up of the

prediction results in further evidence that the company *is* in danger, then direct action could be taken. This may be to choose not to work with the company if it is a supplier, or perhaps change its payment terms to be 'pay in advance' if it is a customer.

V. Conclusion

Improvement

My main improvement consideration is to replace the three target classes with two; 0 - company is likely to go bankrupt, 1 - company is not likely to go bankrupt.

My assumption was that I would reach a higher F1 score since there is more training data for the bankruptcy class. This assumption was confirmed, after re-running the same code with only two classes. As shown in the table below, with only two target classes, a decision tree reaches an F1 score of 0.69.

F1 score by algorithm

Algorithm	2 Class =	3 Class
Decision Tree	0.6917	0.4490
KNN	0.6624	0.4360
Logistic Regression	0.5357	0.3390
Gradient Booster	0.4908	0.5090
Neural Network	0.4882	
Random Forest	0.4882	

However from a user point of view, a two class algorithm could be less valuable as there is no indication of whether the company could go bankrupt soon (within the next 2 years). With limited company resources to review businesses in detail, they may prefer a method which can highlight companies likely to go bankrupt within the next 1-2 years.

Reflection

Having reflected on the process of carrying out this project, there are a few areas I found very interesting and there were a few key challenges.

Key interests

I thoroughly enjoyed the exercise overall. An example of a specific interest was, after completing the code to train each algorithm and assess the performance (F1 score), I enjoyed carrying out the iterations of feature cleaning and selection with the aim of increasing the algorithm performance. I look forward to carrying out more research into feature selection methods.

Key challenges and frustrations

I found it frustrating that companies in the training data didn't have a unique identifier. This could have added more depth to the analysis, for example, showing the changing financial metrics as the company neared bankruptcy.

Another challenge was keeping track of the many iterations of re-training I carried out, when using different data processing methods, feature selection etc. I'm interested to research how best to do this.

Sources

http://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/multiclass.html

https://docs.microsoft.com/en-us/azure/machine-learning/studio/algorithm-choice

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Multiclass classification

https://discuss.analyticsvidhya.com/t/what-is-the-fundamental-difference-between-randomforest-and-gradient-boosting-algorithms/2341

Appendix A - Training Data Features

- X1 net profit / total assets
- X2 total liabilities / total assets
- X3 working capital / total assets
- X4 current assets / short-term liabilities
- X5 [(cash + short-term securities + receivables short-term liabilities) / (operating expenses depreciation)] * 365
- X6 retained earnings / total assets
- X7 EBIT / total assets
- X8 book value of equity / total liabilities
- X9 sales / total assets

- X10 equity / total assets
- X11 (gross profit + extraordinary items + financial expenses) / total assets
- X12 gross profit / short-term liabilities
- X13 (gross profit + depreciation) / sales
- X14 (gross profit + interest) / total assets
- X15 (total liabilities * 365) / (gross profit + depreciation)
- X16 (gross profit + depreciation) / total liabilities
- X17 total assets / total liabilities
- X18 gross profit / total assets
- X19 gross profit / sales
- X20 (inventory * 365) / sales
- X21 sales (n) / sales (n-1)
- X22 profit on operating activities / total assets
- X23 net profit / sales
- X24 gross profit (in 3 years) / total assets
- X25 (equity share capital) / total assets
- X26 (net profit + depreciation) / total liabilities
- X27 profit on operating activities / financial expenses
- X28 working capital / fixed assets
- X29 logarithm of total assets
- X30 (total liabilities cash) / sales
- X31 (gross profit + interest) / sales
- X32 (current liabilities * 365) / cost of products sold
- X33 operating expenses / short-term liabilities
- X34 operating expenses / total liabilities
- X35 profit on sales / total assets
- X36 total sales / total assets
- X37 (current assets inventories) / long-term liabilities
- X38 constant capital / total assets
- X39 profit on sales / sales
- X40 (current assets inventory receivables) / short-term liabilities
- X41 total liabilities / ((profit on operating activities + depreciation) * (12/365))
- X42 profit on operating activities / sales
- X43 rotation receivables + inventory turnover in days
- X44 (receivables * 365) / sales
- X45 net profit / inventory
- X46 (current assets inventory) / short-term liabilities
- X47 (inventory * 365) / cost of products sold
- X48 EBITDA (profit on operating activities depreciation) / total assets
- X49 EBITDA (profit on operating activities depreciation) / sales
- X50 current assets / total liabilities
- X51 short-term liabilities / total assets
- X52 (short-term liabilities * 365) / cost of products sold)
- X53 equity / fixed assets
- X54 constant capital / fixed assets
- X55 working capital
- X56 (sales cost of products sold) / sales
- X57 (current assets inventory short-term liabilities) / (sales gross profit depreciation)

X58 total costs /total sales

X59 long-term liabilities / equity

X60 sales / inventory

X61 sales / receivables

X62 (short-term liabilities *365) / sales

X63 sales / short-term liabilities

X64 sales / fixed assets